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THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE PRESS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Introduction by C. O. ARNDT

GATEWAY TO THE THOUGHTWORLD OF A PEOPLE

In a free society the daily press serves as a singularly fruitful medium for gaining access to the thoughtworld of a people. Through its pages the reader is enabled to keep informed about matters great and small, of transitory and long range significance. Here is recorded the raw material out of which historians will write the history of our times, some novelists or dramatists discover stuff for a plot, or a story, or a book. The press endeavors to bring something for everyman. Why, then, should not teachers of foreign languages supplement the dated reading material provided by the textbooks with the ever emerging fresh copy of the foreign language press? Through the foreign language press daily evidence is given of the fact that German, French, Spanish, Italian, Hebrew and other languages live and function vitally in the United States and specifically in the area of metropolitan New York.

Actuated by these thoughts, the Foreign Language Department of the School of Education determined to center its 24th Annual Conference on the subject: The Foreign Language Press and Foreign Language Teaching. The papers which emerged from this Conference follow.

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WHAT FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEWSPAPERS CAN DO FOR STUDENTS

Jacques Habert

There are very good reasons why newspapers should be used in the diffusion of knowledge as it is carried on in schools. Not so long ago, Will Rogers used to say, "All I know is what I see in the papers." . . . Of course, we have also today other means of education. . . . Still, without going to the extreme opinion that newspapers are the source of all knowledge, it is our belief that they could be largely used in classes; and this seems to us especially true of foreign language newspapers for the teaching of foreign languages.

WHAT DOES A FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEWSPAPER BRING TO A STUDENT?

Here in America, we have the extreme good fortune to have many newspapers published in foreign languages. This is especially true in New York City, where publications written in all the tongues that are taught in our public schools can be found.

What does a foreign language newspaper bring to a student? Many things, indeed. First, it gives the student the strange and enriching feeling that the language he is studying is something which really exists, which is really used, which is really useful. For the young student of foreign languages, just to have in his hands a newspaper in the language he is studying is an experience in itself. For there, he has in his own hands something living, something contemporary.

It is not a list of the pharaohs or of the emperors of the Holy Roman Empire, which is less interesting to him than the name of the pitcher of the Dodgers or of the heavyweight champion of the world. It is not a demonstration of algebraic figures, which he feels is of less interest to him than the price of a second-hand car. It is not an abstract study of far-off lands, which would interest him more if he knew he had a chance to go there.

No, a newspaper is precisely a living object, close to his interests, where he will find the names of the champions he admires, or the price of the second-hand car, or information about the boats and airplanes in which he can travel to those distant countries.

So my first point will be that, at any rate, there are always in a newspaper elements of interest for a student and this is especially true of a foreign language newspaper for a foreign language student.

For many other things will he find in it. There is, for him to discover, what are the things that really interest the people whose language he is studying, what are their concerns, what events they feel worthy of a front page, news to which they react, things that arouse their enthusiasm or their scorn. There is, for the student to find, their problems, their difficulties, their labor, the reason for their joys, why they want what they want and what they hope for. . . . There is, for the student to discover through headlines and articles, the mentality, the spirit, the conscience of the people whose language he is studying.

Many other items, of less importance perhaps, but of no less interest, are to be found in the various pages of the newspaper. Through looking at the advertisements, just having a glance at the kind of commercial firms that advertise, the student will see in what domain of economic life the people he is interested in are especially active. A study of the literary, artistic, scientific pages will tell him what the people who are speaking the language he is studying know, believe, and think in literature, art, or science.

Last but not least, in the newspaper there is the language, the language itself, today's language, every day's language, the living language, the present language, the language of everyone, the spoken language, the real language. What a thrilling experience it is to see that words that have been so difficult to learn and that are even more difficult to pronounce, that verbs that unfortunately have so many forms and so many tenses, adjectives that have to agree in gender and in number with the nouns they are related to, subordinate propositions which are so strange in the way they want to be constructed, all this fantasmagoria of terms and expressions, all this torturing imposition on the poor student, constitutes in fact a simple thing, a thing which is used every day by very common people, which is used to speak of the simplest necessities, a thing which is the matter and the life of newspapers.

HOW CAN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS USE A FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEWSPAPER?

Now, let us come to the second part of this exposé. For, of course, every one can see what a foreign language newspaper could bring to the foreign language student, the soul, the feeling, the life of a language and the language itself. But how can students penetrate all these possibilities, seize these riches, how can they understand the newspaper, how can they really use it?

The first fact we notice here is that it is not easy for a student

who, for the first time, comes across a foreign language newspaper to read it usefully. The question of knowing at what time in the study of a language a newspaper could be brought into the curriculum will be discussed and certainly answered by the panel later on. In my opinion, the use of a newspaper should not in any case be considered before the second or third year of the study of a language, in order not to discourage the beginner by something that would seem to him an insurmountable difficulty.

Here, a preliminary fact must be pointed out: no one would want to pretend that newspapers can replace books—textbooks or reading books. Newspapers are complementary teaching material.

Furthermore, the guidance of the teacher is a must for those who start using a foreign language newspaper.

What can a teacher do to help his students? First, as the instructor would do for any new book that he puts into the hands of his pupils, he has to explain to the students what kind of newspaper it is, where it is published, what are its intentions, its utility, who its readers are, what are its main topics of interest, what role it plays on the national scene, what is its mission in the community in which we are living or in which it is published.

Then, what will the teacher do in a practical way? To answer this question, I have had to interrogate many of our colleagues, for, although I personally taught French for many years, I must admit that I had students of French whose knowledge of the language was fair enough for them to read a French newspaper without having much need of the advice of their lecturer.

But from the answers given by some of the hundreds of those who, from coast to coast, from Maine to New Orleans, are using our French newspaper in their classes, here is what I have gathered. The way teachers use the newspaper varies: 1) according to the age group of the students; 2) according to what the teacher feels is of the greatest interest for his classes in the newspaper.

● First of all, there is the teacher who wants to use the newspaper as a kind of textbook, and this possibility is especially practical for students in their first years of French. The teacher will pick out a short item, which will be either a news article or an anecdote or a funny story (of course, jokes have to be kept within the limit of the drawing room) or a short story. He will tell his pupils to study it for the next lesson, to prepare the difficult words, to understand the meaning, and then, when they meet again, the news items, the joke or the short story will be read and commented upon. This

method offers a wide opportunity for using a newspaper once a week. The possibility of a newspaper's being used as a textbook presupposes the necessity of its running items of the type mentioned.

In this respect, the question will be discussed by the panel to determine whether it would be possible to have a section of the foreign language press so written that students in their second year and beyond could read it with understanding. I do not believe personally that such a section is necessary or advisable, if the publisher sees to it that there are always items or humorous stories or short stories that can be understood by this category of student.

● The second way of using the paper: for more advanced students of the language, a study of headlines, editorial comments, background articles on current events, in other words, items which will give the students a knowledge of the opinions, feelings of the people in whom they are interested, together with a knowledge of less casual, more elaborate forms of language.

Speaking of headlines, it should be noted that, in a foreign language, they are not usually as condensed, as colloquial, as shortened as they are in American newspapers. Students of the English language as it is spoken in America often have trouble interpreting headlines; and more than one example of cryptic expressions, especially as concerns sports, could easily be given. . . . Such is not the case with foreign languages, where, as a rule, headlines are clearer, even going so far as to make complete sentences.

● Thirdly, for advanced students, reading of literary articles, political studies, detailed reports, which will enable him to tackle some important questions in the language of writers, research workers, philosophers.

Here, I should like to underline the fact that it is in a newspaper, and only in a newspaper, that students of a language can find the way to say new words and expressions, unknown only a few weeks before and which immediately become everyday terms, such as jet planes, A or H bombs, interplanetary rockets, ICBM, etc. You may look for these expressions in a dictionary; you will not find them. You will find them in a foreign language newspaper. A foreign language newspaper is a living dictionary.

So, you see that we find three ways in which a newspaper can be used, according to the age group of the students, and their ability to use the language. A consequence is that the various pages of the newspaper must be written in a different way, in a different style, so that they can be used by the various categories of students. It

is in this respect that the organization of the newspaper is important, as it is also to facilitate the work of the teacher. We have found it useful to have the same kind of items always on the same pages. The teacher knows immediately, and this is true every week, where to find the short stories or the crossword puzzle or the easy little news items. He knows also where to find the political article or the editorial. He knows where the literary studies are.

We have also noticed in our survey among our readers that the teachers prefer the tabloid form, as being the easiest to have in class, so as to use an educational aid which is not too noisy or bulky and which does not constitute an enormous rampart behind which pupils can chatter happily about something else or pull out their comic books.

OTHER ASPECTS OF THE USEFULNESS OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEWSPAPER FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDENTS

Of course, everyone will understand that the publisher must please not only teachers and students, but also the very vast shades of his readership. This is why there will undoubtedly be many pages which might not be of interest in the schools, such as reports of the activities of foreign language groups in New York City, pictures of their presidents and the Ladies Auxiliaries, announcements of births, marriages, deaths, although some will also want to see these smiling faces and read this kind of information. I may even venture to say that some will be glad to find out what kind of activities with a French or Italian or Spanish or German angle are going on in a big city like New York. Among the announcements of future meetings, some will be happy to see, for instance, where the next French dance is being held (for I personally believe that if a student of French is able to enjoy a French musette dance, he will be apt to make fast progress in learning the French language).

In fact, here is a non-negligible aspect of the usefulness of a foreign language newspaper in a community like this metropolis in which we are so happy to live. To take only one example, through our newspaper, any student of French will see where to meet French-speaking people, know them, mix with them, speak to them. Through our newspaper, they will know where the French theatre is playing, there to hear in their own words, by the best of French actors, Corneille and Musset, Victor Hugo and Jean-Paul Sartre. And if the theatre is too complicated for them, they can always go to one of the many French movies in town and try to listen, if they can still hear after such a sight, the French language spoken by Brigitte Bardot.

The question will also be considered whether it appears possible to have a column in the newspaper written weekly by the students and teachers of the New York City schools and colleges. Without infringing on the answers that will be given by the members of the panel, it may be of interest to indicate here the solution that has been adopted by the French newspaper. The university page of *France-Amérique* is written by teachers, but they are not writing especially for the students, but on the contrary, for the entire readership. There is no column written by students; but in order to enable students to express their views, in French or in English, on French subjects, we publish, with the Metropolitan Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of French, a special supplement, which is a paper in itself, called "*The French-American Student*." It is published once a term, and it could become a monthly whenever the students and teachers wish. In order to acquaint the editorial staff of the students with the problems of publishing a newspaper, a great part of the financial responsibility is left to them. It is to be noted that the publication of "*The French-American Student*" has always netted them a quite handsome profit.

Speaking of the financial angle, it is needless to point out that newspapers are not expensive, that special prices are given to schools when orders are given in bulk. And so, the foreign language newspaper is not only one of the best and most useful means of education, but also one of the least expensive.

La Fontaine remarked somewhere that we should beware of men who write in gazettes, because, he said, they sometimes have to pay tribute to the Devil. Things, you see, have improved a great deal since the Seventeenth Century. In the gazettes, in the newspapers, you also find today a great deal of good, and I thank you for having invited me to tell you some of all the good that foreign language students will find in our foreign language newspapers.

Jacques Habert is publisher of the New York French newspaper *France-Amérique*.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE PRESS

Dr. Theodore Huebener

As in most English-speaking countries, foreign languages do not play a particularly important role in the curriculum of the American school. The reason for this is very simple: despite the numerous emigrants from all countries of the globe who have settled here, English is so universally used and is so dominant in its economic and social influences that no other language is necessary in daily life.

With reference to foreign countries, one merely shrugs one's shoulders and says, "Let them learn English." This advice, peculiarly enough, has been eagerly accepted all over, almost without question or protest. Hence the rapid spread of English as a world language.

With reference to commercial dealings with foreign countries a satisfactory solution has also been found. In the foreign departments of big corporations and international banks, cultured foreigners are frequently employed; they are cheaper than Americans and have learned their languages well. Cubans are preferred for South American trade and for the correspondence with European business houses Swiss are favorites. Thus the possible vocational preparation in foreign languages for the young American disappears to a large extent. It simply does not pay to acquire a mastery of a foreign tongue; there are sufficient foreigners available.

But someone may ask, "How about the numerous foreign-speaking ethnic groups in the United States." According to statistical compilations there are millions of Germans, Italians, Russians, Poles, Scandinavians and other nationalities. Are they and their languages not of cultural and economic significance?

The answer is, that despite their large numbers, these ethnic groups are of only minor importance because as a whole they are not the best representatives of their respective peoples. The majority of the immigrants were always those who could not get along at home: that is, the poor, the uneducated, the failures and the persecuted. The rich, the successful, and the cultured had no reason to leave their homes. Only those of humble origin, often unnoticed and neglected by their native land, were compelled by dire need to emigrate and to establish a new existence for themselves in the New World by hard work and bitter struggles. One could not demand

of them that they should also shine as champions of culture. Indeed, in many cases their own native land gave them comparatively little in the way of culture. Command of their mother tongue was never very good; in America it often degenerated and was mixed with English.

In addition to this, the fact must not be overlooked that the foreigner was often ridiculed because of his foreign speech and was exploited because of his ignorance of English. It was, therefore, always a great economic and social advantage to learn English as quickly as possible. So strong has this pressure been that it was not at all necessary to continue the program of Americanization which was planned many decades ago. With eagerness the average newcomer learned English and forgot his mother tongue.

There have been, of course, cultured immigrants who have viewed this process with distress. They have continued to cultivate their mother-tongue and have made efforts to preserve their cultural heritage. In New York, for example, there are associations with such aims among Germans, Hungarians, Czechs, Poles and Italians. That such movements can maintain themselves is attested by the fact that a number of them, among the Germans, for example, are over a hundred years old. It is an indication of the magnanimity of America that such efforts have never been viewed with suspicion nor that they have been suppressed. Quite the contrary: the idea of the melting-pot has been superseded by that of the ideal of cultural plurality. Each foreign group like the individual player in an orchestra is to contribute his best to the symphonic whole. In metropolitan areas like New York and Chicago, where there are larger blocks of foreign-speaking elements, the foreign language has been introduced into the public schools in deference to them.

Essentially, however, the foreign language program has been built up on entirely different premises. The basic principle has been: teach those languages which have made major contributions to American speech and culture. On this assumption, French, German, Italian and Spanish are the modern languages which have been most widely taught in American high schools and colleges. Interestingly enough, until recent times, Latin had a greater enrollment throughout the country than any of the modern tongues. Language instruction has been a part of secondary education; only in a few states such as Florida, Texas and New Mexico has any effort been made to teach a foreign language (specifically Spanish) in the elementary schools. Before the turn of the century German was taught in many grade schools in the Midwest.

The complaint has often been voiced that Americans do not master foreign languages as readily as Europeans; in fact, that Americans as a whole are not linguistically gifted. This assertion is of dubious validity. Assuming that Americans are as intelligent as Europeans, there is no reason to believe that they cannot learn languages with equal facility. However, it is true that instruction in foreign languages has not been effective in our country as far as practical speaking knowledge is concerned due to the minor role which that subject has been assigned in the curriculum.

Firstly, foreign languages are elective; secondly, the majority of American pupils take a language for only two years, after having begun it at the age of 14 or 15, and thirdly, there is no unified course extending through the four years of high school and continuing in college. Compare this with the eight or nine-year courses which are customary in Continental schools, and which the pupil begins at the age of 10 or 11.

Since foreign languages are electives the lazy or indifferent pupil can avoid them. In fact, it is now possible to go through high school and college without having had any contact with a foreign tongue. Generally, even an academic student takes only one language; a second language is becoming rarer and rarer. Gone are the days when it was customary to take 3 or 4 years of a first language and 2 or 3 of a second. This is due in large measure to the fact that the language requirements of the colleges have been materially reduced. Nowadays a student can enter college without offering any foreign language since the "condition" can be made up during the first two years. In many colleges, therefore, the language teaching is of an elementary kind, differing little from what was formerly taught in the high school.

The fact that the majority of the students who take a language at all pursue it for only two years, means that only the bare elements of the language can be taught and that only the most elementary reading can be undertaken. It also means—and this is most unfortunate for the serious mined-student who wishes to continue the language in college that there is a gap between the high-school language preparation and the college courses. Administratively, this has meant that college freshmen have been given placement examinations or have had to take refresher courses. Only the very exceptional student will have carried the language throughout his four years of high school.

Of course, these weaknesses in our foreign language courses have been apparent for a long time. The facts gained particular promi-

nence when in 1925 a thorough study of foreign language instruction in the United States and Canada was undertaken. This investigation resulted in the 17 volumes of the famous Coleman report which not only presented the facts in detail, but also established the principles for years to come. Since one could not hope for an extension of the course (or rather, did not dare to demand it) a compromise was made with the circumstances. It was clear that the enrollment in languages had gradually dropped,—that 85 per cent of the pupils who took a language studied it for only two years. What could they be taught in so short a time?

As the only desirable, attainable and valuable goal, the reading aim was set up. Its protagonists pointed to the fact that reading ability was the easiest to teach and to learn, that even with little practice it could be maintained longer than speaking ability; and finally, that for the great mass of students it was the most useful attainment. Only a very small proportion of the graduates of our schools would ever use their foreign language practically or vocationally, but it could be assumed, most of them would find opportunity and have the interest to read it.

The reading aim was by no means merely a matter of opinion; it was adopted—not unanimously, however,—by the Committee after a number of scientific studies. Particularly intensive were the investigations concerned with the psychology and physiology of reading. Since then, the reading aim has been rather generally adopted throughout the country, and methods, textbooks and examinations have been adjusted accordingly.

Within recent years the marked change in the character of the high school population which has resulted in a vast increase in "general" diplomas and a decline in the number of academic pupils, has affected the content of most secondary school subjects. In an effort to meet the needs of less gifted students, "general" science, "general" mathematics and "general" language have been introduced.

General language, of which there are some six major varieties, has not been too successful. To be effective it requires a particularly skilled and well-equipped teacher. Furthermore, the serious-minded student wants to learn an actual language which he can use vocationally or in college.

From the standpoint of usefulness, the reading aim has been under attack for a long time. Things came to a head at the beginning of Word War II when it was found that pitifully few young inductees had a mastery of any foreign tongue. To overcome this deficiency, the Army organized the so-called Army Specialized Training Pro-

gram (ASTP). It provided intensive instruction in various educational areas. However, the courses in foreign languages which appeared to achieve outstanding success and which were widely publicized, aroused the interest of both layman and language teachers. After a few months of training young men were provided with a practical command in one of the major foreign languages. There was general amazement that Americans could acquire a foreign tongue so rapidly. What was the matter with our formal language instruction; why could the high school and college not do as well?

The answer is very simple: They could, under the same favorable conditions. Enthusiasts for the ASTP courses and critics of the public schools failed to stress the extremely advantageous learning factors, namely: the students were highly selected, they were taught in groups of ten, they were given intensive instruction by an American teacher plus a native informant, various mechanical devices such as phonograph records were employed, there was a singleness of aim and an absence of competition with other subjects, and finally, the students were highly motivated (in fact, they were under military discipline). It is beyond question that the ASTP did give its students a practical spoken command of a foreign language within a comparatively short time. However, it should be pointed out that it was largely soldier talk, wholly undesirable in the classroom, and that—despite a number of important studies made later—no comprehensive scientific evaluation of the students' accomplishments was ever undertaken.

The ASTP, however, was one of the most interesting and large scale educational experiments ever undertaken and it could not fail to influence the organization of courses and classroom teaching. With reference to foreign language instruction its most salutary effects were that it drew attention to the importance of the practical, the speaking aim, the employment of intensive methods, the desirability of smaller classes and the use of the newest audio-visual aids. "Conversation," instead of reading, or in one conjunction with reading, became the new ideal. A number of colleges (Cornell, for example) adopted the intensive method in toto. Advanced language schools, like the Institute of Languages and Linguistics in Washington, have gone furthest in exploiting all of the possibilities of electrophonic devices in connection with language teaching. Director Dostert, who originated the multi-lingual translation method at Nuremberg, has been the pioneer in this field.

Language teachers like to think of their subject as one that constitutes the basis of humanistic studies. It is a fact, of course, that

languages are vehicles of emotion as well as of thought and that they are the soul of the culture of a people. Hence it is not too startling to find that language enrollments in our schools reflect world conditions. Before World War I German was the leading modern language taught in our schools. At present Spanish is in first place. Latin has been declining in numbers. French has recovered from the shock of 1934; Italian has increased in several communities. A new arrival on the linguistic scene is Hebrew which has made rapid strides in a number of cities in the East.

With the emergence of the United States as the political, economic and cultural leader in the Western world, the need for a knowledge of foreign languages has increased enormously. In fact, the demand far exceeds the supply. The Berlitz Schools and language disc firms like Linguaphone are doing a land-office business. Corporations with far-flung world-wide empires are recognizing the urgency of a foreign-language equipment for young Americans, even if the schools are still lagging behind.

The State Department maintains an elaborate system of U. S. Centers throughout the world through which it endeavors to spread information about our country and to influence the thinking of foreign peoples. In West Germany this program was particularly intensive, yet much of its effectiveness was lost because of a lack of foreign language equipment on the part of American officials. At a time when German was of prime importance, less of it was taught in our schools.

In the ideological war which is now being waged, language is a powerful weapon. We can no longer afford to neglect this important element in the educational equipment of our youth. America is now a leader in world affairs but she will not be able to hold that leadership if our young people are not prepared for an effective participation in world affairs. The latter is impossible without a knowledge of foreign languages.

It is idle to argue that we can equip our representatives with a foreign language as they need it. A language cannot be learned in a few weeks or a few months, not even by a genius. It means years of serious application and practice.

Because of the limited time devoted to language instruction in the schools, it is necessary that the student secure as much practice as possible on the outside. In a city like New York there are many opportunities—radio-movies, television, and foreign theaters.

New York is not only the most cosmopolitan city of the U. S., but possibly also of the entire world. It is doubtful whether there is an ethnic stock of any importance which is not represented among the

school children and the workers in shops, factories and restaurants. New York has ever been a city of foreigners. Frequently its mayor has been a man of foreign birth.

So it is not strange that a wide variety of foreign language publications should be issued here, including newspapers in Arabic, Russian and Chinese. In fact, years ago there were more than there are now. Once there were five German and four Yiddish dailies.

With the shift in ethnic groups, the number of the latter have declined, whereas Spanish publications have increased in number.

In any case, the foreign language press plays an important role in our city, reaching thousands of Americans who would otherwise have difficulty in getting the news.

What is the relation of the foreign language press to the teaching of foreign languages in the schools? How can one help the other?

From the standpoint of the school, the teacher of foreign languages should read the paper of his language. He should bring it to the attention of his pupils and use it as much as possible in class. A bulletin board with clippings, posted day by day, should be maintained.

The newspaper editor, on the other hand, can help the school by:

1. Publishing news of school and student activities for the benefit of the general reader and for parents.
2. Publishing news of the foreign country which will appeal to the foreign language student.
3. Maintaining a regular "school page."
4. Printing articles in easier style for beginners and providing them with vocabularies.
5. Occasionally arranging essay contests, with prizes for students who produce something creditable in the foreign language.
6. One major award, say, a trip to the foreign country, for an exceptional student.

The above are only a few suggestions which may prove useful in improving relations between the foreign language press and the foreign language classroom.

Dr. Theodore Huebener is Director of Foreign Languages, Schools of the City of New York.

TWENTY-FOURTH ANNUAL FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONFERENCE

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE PRESS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Chairman:

Dr. Christian O. Arndt, Chairman, Department of Foreign Languages and International Relations Education, School of Education, New York University.

Panel Members:

Prof. Jacques Habert: "France-Amerique"

Dr. Ludwig Oberndorf: "New York Staats-Zeitung und Herold"

Mr. Gene Rea: "Il Progresso Italo-Americano"

Mr. Francisco Portela: "La Prensa"

Moderator of Panel Discussion:

Dr. Emilio L. Guerra, Supervisor of the Program for Non-English Speaking Students in the New York City High Schools and Lecturer in Education, New York University.

Discussion Leader:

Dr. Theodore Huebener, Director of Foreign Languages in the Schools of New York City.

Recorder:

Mr. Salvatore Corteselli, Department of Foreign Languages, George W. Wingate High School, Brooklyn, New York.

PANEL DISCUSSION

Mr. Portela: I have been in the newspaper business for more than 30 years and I am obsessed with the important role that newspapers play in life. The first thing we do upon arrival in a foreign country is to look for a newspaper in order to understand what is going on. It is the link with our times and the people we are going to meet. Concerning the importance of the foreign press in education, I say that teachers must realize that pupils wish to know what is going on both at home and in the country whose language we are studying. Newspapers, therefore, are indispensable. "La Prensa" has been in existence since 1816 and has always had contacts with teachers in the public schools and colleges all over the country. The

foreign language newspaper should be used in the schools to point up current events, to examine and study a foreign language, and to keep students abreast of what is happening in the world. The Spanish press is essential in understanding what is taking place in Spain and Latin America. Students, reading Spanish language newspapers, are made aware of these events.

Any teacher can set up a good classroom program by using a foreign language newspaper. He can make use of the basic language used in the newspapers, the questionnaires and the contests. To cite an instance of how useful "La Prensa" can be, I recently interviewed an American lady who came to our office. She had been in many countries of the world teaching Spanish—in Alaska, Indonesia, Africa, Iceland. Her purpose was to teach the basic Spanish, using such vocabulary as people needed to know in daily conversation. A physician going to a medical conference in Buenos Aires, a merchant from Indonesia who had a gift shop there who wanted to go to Peru to buy articles—to all these she taught basic conversational Spanish. Her only means was through "La Prensa" of New York. Thus one can see that any foreign language press is a most useful tool in teaching languages.

Dr. Oberndorf: I should like to mention the experiences of my newspaper in the last two generations in trying to interest students to use newspapers as a medium of learning a foreign language. We organized a special department some years ago before World War II which covered the field through specialized reports. We were interested not only in the classroom but also the *Vereins* in colleges and universities. We devoted many pages of our paper to printing specific information about schools and to giving German lessons. All this represented a great financial sacrifice and we had to induce the publisher to go along. But it was a one-sided experience. From my own experience I have found that the literary section of our paper is vitally used in colleges and universities as a medium of learning German. In the high schools it plays a very restricted role, not much time being left for lessons based on the use of newspapers. In the high schools textbooks written by experts are used. If newspapers are used, the teacher must make a judicious choice of selected material in keeping with the students' ability and learning level.

I also want to say that the use of newspapers is not the solution of the main problem of teaching foreign languages in the United States. There is in our country a certain amount of "enmity," if it is not too sharp an expression, against foreign people. To mention

one example, the German Americans had a parade the other day along Fifth Avenue. Its main purpose was to show the contributions of German Americans to the greatness of our country. Hardly any English language newspaper printed a word about this event. A similar attitude is reflected also in the history books used in our schools. The contributions of Germans to American life is glossed over. Hardly anybody knows enough about Karl Schurz or General Von Steuben, to mention only two. If they are mentioned at all in school books, it is done in an absolutely insufficient way. I feel that if the contributions to this country of American citizens of foreign birth were to be properly recognized, it would indirectly help more than anything else to induce American youth to learn foreign languages.

Mr. Rea: The purpose of this meeting is to discuss foreign languages and the role that the foreign language press can play in teaching languages. All the audience here is composed of teachers, so we must focus our attention on the problem of teaching. The ultimate goal of a teacher is to teach and the basic problem of teaching is education. Education means to have pupils understand. A pupil studies English in order to be able to express himself verbally and in writing. He studies algebra in order to understand mathematics and arithmetic so that he can make calculations. But unfortunately in the study of foreign languages I must confess that there is little carry over. I have had seven years of French and six years of Spanish but today I am afraid I cannot speak very much in either language. Those languages I learned in a purely academic way. So I welcome the opportunity to discuss foreign languages and what can be done in the basic interpretation of education for our boys and girls. Just as science, English or history prepares young men and women for life ahead of them, I think that the same thing should apply to the study of foreign languages. It is regrettable indeed that in these United States of ours, with the leadership we have assumed in the world, the study of foreign languages is not considered as important a factor as science and other subjects.

Why are foreign languages important? We in the United States are but a segment of the entire world, and when we read something about Russia, Spain, or Italy or France, we can only interpret it from our English language papers because a great number of our people cannot get to understand the actual problems of these countries through direct sources. If our foreign language students were greater in number, and if in studying foreign languages our boys and girls were to read a foreign language newspaper, they would

get an entirely different interpretation of the feelings, the sentiments, and the events that are going on in these countries.

All of us who represent the foreign language press realize that the central purpose of our newspapers is to answer a need of those men, women and families who are not able to speak or understand the English language. In answering this need we are cognizant of the fact that our readers, for example those that read Italian, come from Italy and are therefore greatly interested in what is going on in that country. Of necessity every foreign language newspaper must devote a great portion of its space to events going on in the country of origin, in my particular case, Italy. So that in our columns we report on activities in Rome, Naples, etc., the political, economic and social aspects of that country.

Boys and girls studying foreign languages must be induced to study more than merely the academic aspect of these languages, more than merely a study to gain credits to graduate from school. You as teachers or we as newspapermen or a civic group should endeavor to inspire them beyond the academic classroom knowledge of a foreign language. Because it is something far more than that; it is the understanding that we are living in one world with the jet age around the corner. Today, when we can travel to Europe in a few hours, we are no longer living in the world of fifty or sixty years ago, in which events taking place in Spain, or France, or Algeria, or Italy were something far away.

Today we are living in an age in which events in any part of the world are only a matter of minutes away. The most wonderful example of that was the recent coronation of the Holy Father. We knew exactly what was going on in Rome not more than a few moments after it happened. This is an example of how close we are to other peoples of the world.

When you as teachers instruct your pupils from textbooks, that becomes purely academic. It is something dead. The pupils go home, study their lessons, their grammatical exercises, and mumble sentences and phrases in order to memorize and impress them upon their minds. As soon as they pass their tests or graduate and go on to college, they will forget them. Even if youth does forget the academic side of foreign language study, if it has acquired the facility to read a language through a foreign language newspaper, and has developed thereby an interest in the life, the economic and social problems of the people who speak that language, then you teachers and the community as a whole will have derived lasting benefit.

By reading and making foreign language newspapers part of the curriculum, you will have instilled in those boys and girls an understanding of the people whose language they are studying, and the problems they face. Thus, as the pupils graduate from high school or college, they are going to have a better understanding of life's problems. When a problem comes up in the UN for example, they will be in a better position to understand it and will not have to rely on the interpretation of a newspaper or news analyst. Most columnists give a deliberate slant on the news they report. If, however, a person has a good understanding of the problems of a foreign country, he can read the item and detect the columnist's coloration of the news, its exaggeration or partial truth.

In this way students can gain a better understanding of the world, and I think we will approach the day when all of us understand that we are living in one world, as we actually are. Thus the foreign language newspapers can be of tremendous help both in understanding people and in furthering ability to read another tongue.

Dr. Guerra (Moderator): All of us are interested in the progress made in rapid communication and travel between the United States and other countries. What help can the foreign language press give teachers and students who are potential travelers abroad? Has the panel given any thought to a policy which would encourage travel abroad and give the necessary information so that people can prepare intelligently for trips to other countries?

Dr. Oberndorf: In our daily and Sunday issues we publish articles about the most important cities to visit, famous spas, etc. Daily and on Sundays we have an information column which reaches not only our readers but also outside interests who send in inquiries about travel.

Prof. Habert: This is true of all foreign language newspapers. We have articles about the countries from which we came, about places to be seen there, means of travel, information about travel agencies, etc. So people who want to travel should by all means read the foreign language press in order to get much valuable and useful information about traveling.

Dr. José Garcia-Mazás: Foreign language newspapers give considerable orientation on traveling abroad. There are photographs of cities and places to see, about hotels and accommodations, and means of travel.

What I should like to see is a section of the papers devoted exclusively to students, one in which they would be interested. In this section, students could contribute articles and compositions written

by them. Prizes could be offered for the best compositions submitted by high school and college students. This section would be very appropriate in the Sunday issue.

Dr. Guerra: Here is another aspect of the problem which I give for the panel's deliberation: What is the relative advantage of using foreign language newspapers published abroad versus the foreign language newspapers published in New York City?

Mr. Portela: As far as Spanish is concerned, the language is the same whether spoken in Spain or Latin America. The only advantage that would be gained by using a newspaper published in Latin America is that one would gain a knowledge of certain regionalisms current in the different countries using Spanish. But the language itself would be the same. In this connection I had an interesting experience lately. A lady from South America came to our office one day looking for a job. I informed her that I was sorry to refuse her since there were no positions available. Thereupon she became angry and said that upon reflection she wouldn't think of working here since we didn't use the same language as is used in South America. I informed her that we had been speaking for 15 or 20 minutes and up to that moment she hadn't needed a dictionary to understand me and I hadn't needed one to understand her. So as you can see, Spanish is the same all over the world. The only thing that Spanish papers published abroad give which is unique are the different nuances and regional expressions.

Prof. Habert: I don't think I would use in the classroom foreign language newspapers published abroad. Magazines, I think would be suitable, but I doubt that students would learn much by looking at pictures.

Dr. Oberndorf: I should like to comment on another aspect of foreign language learning. Up to 1917 foreign languages were taught in New York from the lowest grade upward. The same system is used today in Germany with great success. However, the other day, Professor Conant said that four years of foreign language instruction in the lower grades has very little value.

Dr. Huebener: I think your information is not quite correct. We did not teach foreign languages throughout the grades, before or after 1917. French and German were taught in the eighth grade in the public schools here. Instruction in German was given in the lower grades in the so-called German schools outside of New York—in Cincinnati, Cleveland and St. Louis, but not here in New York City. Eighth grade instruction in languages was dropped here after a short while. Now interest has been revived and we now have a

program going on in the fifth and sixth grades, but only exceptional children with an IQ of 130 or above study foreign languages in these classes. The languages taught are French and Spanish in 40 schools with about 1,000 children involved.

New York City has always been a foreign city. All the ethnic groups of the world are represented here, so it is not surprising that we have many foreign publications. These publications perform have to present news of the other side because the readers of these papers are interested in their homelands. But these papers also perform another function, and that is the transmission through their pages of a great deal of news to those people who we hope will become good Americans.

Mr. Read used a very hard word in his talk; he said that teaching is "dead." Instruction is not dead. I go around and I see all the foreign language teaching in New York City. We have 1,000 teachers and almost 200 schools in which foreign languages are taught. Instruction is good, in general. It is not what it once was. Our textbooks are far more attractive with many illustrations in color and interesting pictures which make the books very good to look at. The word "academic" was also used in a disparaging sense. Instruction in the past was primarily academic. This waned a little with the years but it is being strengthened again. In fact 51% of the pupils in our public high schools are enrolled in the academic course.

One difficulty in using newspapers in the schools is the very language used in the papers. Journalese expressions are used which one doesn't ordinarily encounter in the classroom. The magazine sections are written on a very high level while in the news articles the language used is on somewhat a lower level. This is almost a necessity because using high falutin terms wouldn't reach the common people. However, a student can learn a great number of new words from the papers; an expression like "jet airplane" can only be learned by reading a newspaper, since it is not met in the classroom. I suggest that the brighter student be encouraged to use the newspaper in the classroom. Also, interesting items should be cut from the papers and be put on the bulletin board. The teacher can call attention to them occasionally so as to interest the students in reading them.

The headlines in the papers are sometimes difficult to understand. The foreign language papers are not quite so rash as our own in this respect. I was once asked by a gentleman whose mother tongue was not English to explain the meaning of this headline appearing in

a New York newspaper: "Ike Wows Midwest Whistle Stop." Consider the difficulty a foreigner would have in deciphering the following headline: "Fifth Avenue Shoplifter Has Egg Nest in Bank."

Articles in the foreign press destined for students should be graded. A vocabulary or footnotes should be used at the bottom of the articles to explain the new words encountered. There should be a section for easier reading which would give the students a sense of accomplishment. Also, the stress should be on news since they are reading a newspaper. Stories of literary value can easily be gotten from other sources. The offering of prizes for contests is very inspiring, useful and stimulating for students. It might induce them to make the teaching of foreign languages their life work.

In regard to the retention of the language by children, it must be remembered that the curve of forgetting works very rapidly in the case of languages and other skills, such as music. This can be overcome by constant practice. If the language is not used, or if one doesn't practice music, it is natural that these skills are eventually forgotten. We demand too much if we expect these skills to be retained if they are not used for years. However, the fundamentals learned in the study of a foreign language are never entirely forgotten and they provide a foundation upon which adults may build.

The foreign language press can aid instruction in the schools by printing news about the schools, items about the foreign countries which are of interest to the students, and by reserving a special area concerned with news about student clubs, social and cultural activities. But all of this costs money and represents a certain financial sacrifice on the part of the newspapers. Schools must cooperate by having pupils buy these papers if this program is to be maintained.

Foreign language newspapers can be used largely only as supplementary reading because teachers must cover a specific amount of material in the syllabus. They can be used in clubs, on Friday afternoons for advanced classes and on the bulletin boards. They ought to be used to keep abreast with foreign languages as they function today and with national and cultural developments in countries outside of the United States.

ISOLATION AS A CHARACTERISTIC OF HIGHLY GIFTED CHILDREN

Paul M. Sheldon

The tendency of highly intelligent children to become isolated has been suggested by Hollingworth¹, Terman, and others. Several years ago² an intensive exploratory study of children who had achieved an IQ of 170 or higher on the Stanford-Binet Scale was made at New York University's Counseling Center for Gifted Children. The subjects comprised all of the children in this category under the age of twelve³ who could be located in the New York area. Sources of information included the files of the Center, the records of the New York City Board of Education Psychological Clinic, and the records of the large public elementary school which admitted students on the basis of high intelligence test scores. Twenty-eight subjects were involved. It was possible to study 24 of them intensively.

Answers were sought to these two questions:

1. To what extent do these children *feel* themselves to be isolated?
2. To what extent do their peers and adult observers consider them to be isolated?

Instruments used for this purpose included the Rorschach Technique of Personality Diagnosis; psychiatric interviews; sociometric studies; the California Test of Personality; the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scale; and statements and observations by teachers, parents, and trained interviewers.

1. Feelings of Isolation as Interpreted by Rorschach Analysts and Psychiatrists

FINDINGS FROM RORSCHACH EXAMINATIONS

The Rorschach cards were administered to each of the 28 sub-

¹ Hollingworth, Leta S., *Children Above 180 IQ*, Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Co., 1942, pp. 262-264.

² This study was made from 1947-1951, but the results have been withheld for ethical and legal reasons. The existence of the aggregate of subjects was well known and some of the individuals were identifiable.

³ Children 12 years of age and older in this intelligence range cannot be measured adequately on standardized tests. They tend to "go through the ceiling."

jects, and their reactions were recorded. Exploratory interviews were held after each examination.

The overall impression obtained from the subjects' responses was that, with two exceptions, these children indicated a high degree of constriction. The examiner found only two subjects whose responses were creative, original, and free. Twenty respondents fell into a middle range which was described as normal, but with indications of confusion, pressure, feelings of inadequacy, lack of confidence, or loneliness.⁴

Two of the subjects who made the best impression on teachers and other observers gave Rorschach responses indicating severe internal cost for exterior social conformity.

Six of the subjects presented neurotic or schizoid patterns.

TABLE I
RORSCHACH FINDINGS

<i>Free, Original, Healthy, Creative</i>	<i>Feelings of Inferiority or of Peculiarity, or Constrictive</i>	<i>Neurotic in Need of Therapy</i>
2	20	6
N = 28		

RESULTS OF EXPLORATORY PSYCHIATRIC INTERVIEWS

Psychiatric interviews were arranged for 21 of the 28 subjects. These were conducted by two staff psychiatrists at Bellevue Hospital, one of whom was the director of the children's psychiatric ward.

The findings indicated that six of the subjects were "comfortably adjusted." These include the two subjects found by the Rorschach examinations to be most healthy; and four whom the Rorschach findings indicated as being normal but having problems.

Eleven were found to be within the normal range, i.e., having some feelings of inferiority, neglect, loneliness, anxiety, and rejection, but having sufficient internal resources to handle their problems.

Four could be diagnosed as being neurotic or in need of psychiatric help. These four were among those whose Rorschach responses indicated severe disturbances. Although the Rorschach examination included more subjects, the findings of the two examinations were generally consistent.

⁴ On the California Test of Personality, twelve of the respondents gave answers which placed them in the lowest quartile in feelings of personal freedom.

TABLE II
PSYCHIATRIC FINDINGS

<i>Comfortably Adjusted</i>	<i>Normal but with Pressures</i>	<i>Neurotic</i>
6	11	4
N = 21		

The psychiatrists and the Rorschach examiner indicated that the causes of disturbances in these subjects were not necessarily related to their high intelligence.

Of the 28 subjects, 15 knew their approximate intelligence level. Six of these seemed to get some constructive satisfaction from the knowledge and to use it in their vocational planning.

SUMMARY OF SUBJECTIVE FINDINGS

The description of a self-definition of isolation is difficult to agree on. For the purposes of this study, it was decided that, when a subject spoke of, or the preponderance of the material indicated that he felt himself to be isolated, rejected by parents, teachers, and peers; or that he was odd, peculiar, constantly lonely, or queer, he could be said to feel isolated.

The evidence from interviews with subjects, Rorschach and psychiatric interviews, and answers on pencil and paper tests indicated that, of the 28 subjects, fifteen felt themselves to be isolated.

2. *Attitudes and Opinions of Others*

SOLITARY PLAY

The nature of a child's play has frequently been used as an index of isolation. Summary of data obtained from subjects, parents, teachers, and other observers indicated that, among the present aggregate, 21 of the subjects nearly always played alone; six, often; one, seldom.

TABLE III
SOLITARY PLAY

<i>Nearly Always Plays Alone</i>	<i>Often Plays Alone</i>	<i>Seldom Plays Alone</i>
21	6	1
N = 28		

IMAGINARY COMPANIONS

In the course of extended family interviews, all parents were asked about imaginary companions. Hollingworth had pointed out earlier⁵

⁵ *Op. Cit.*, p. 263.

that "the imaginary playmate as a solution of the problem of loneliness is fairly frequent."

Of the 28 subjects, only three were described as having had imaginary human playmates; two had had imaginary dogs. None of these had siblings near their own age, or dogs; nor was there evidence of a close relationship with any adult.

TABLE IV
IMAGINARY COMPANIONS

<i>Imaginary Companions</i>	<i>None Mentioned</i>
5	21
N = 28	

SOCIOMETRY

Twelve of the subjects were included in a sociometric investigation (which was being carried on concurrently with this study), to test the amount of social interaction, both in acceptance and rejection, within public school classes. Sociometric findings are based on student responses to questions concerning students whom they would choose or reject as companions in three school activities.

Of the twelve subjects included, three were placed in the lowest quartile; four were in the second quartile; five were in the third quartile; and none in the top quartile. The significance of this data is colored by the fact that all but two of the subjects attended the segregated elementary school where the lowest I.Q. in each class tended to be between 130 and 140.

TABLE V
SOCIOMETRIC RATING IN CLASSROOM-BY QUARTILES

<i>Low</i>	<i>Second</i>	<i>Third</i>	<i>Top</i>
3	4	5	0
N = 12 (Students in HCES—Material taken from another study Data not available on other subjects.)			

HAGGERTY-OLSON-WICKMAN BEHAVIOR RATING SCALES

The authors of these scales do not suggest norms, but provide a check list of traits by which teachers can describe their pupils. The list is divided into two scales: Behavior Problem Record, and Behavior Rating Scale.

On this two-part scale, three of the subjects were given 0, meaning that, in the opinion of the teachers, they had no acute behavior

problems. Fifteen were rated as being socially unpopular with the other students; eleven as "disinterested in school work"; ten as having occasional temper tantrums; and eleven "overactive." There was an overlap, since several of these traits might be found in a single child.

TABLE VI
BEHAVIOR RATING SCALES

<i>Unpopular</i>	<i>Disinterested</i>	<i>Temper Tantrums</i>	<i>Overactive</i>	<i>No Rating</i>
15	11	10	11	2

N = 27
Total Responses = 49 (Several traits were assigned to a single child)

TEACHER INTERVIEWS

In addition to the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Scales, personal interviews were held by field workers with the teachers of 24 subjects. One purpose of these interviews was to get the teachers' judgments regarding the attitudes of other children toward the subjects.

The teachers reported that six of the subjects were disliked; that two of the six were unpopular but not isolated; that classmates were willing to include fourteen of the subjects in their activities; and that four were well liked by their classmates. There was a strong overlap but not complete correlation with the findings of the psychiatric and Rorschach examinations.

TABLE VII
TEACHER OPINIONS ON POPULARITY OF SUBJECTS

<i>Disliked</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>Well-Liked</i>
6	14	4

N = 24

The field workers also inquired into the attitudes of the teachers themselves toward the subjects. Only four were actively disliked by their teachers. Nine were casually accepted; and eleven were well liked. The four subjects disliked were among the six found by the Rorschach examinations to exhibit neurotic patterns.

TABLE VIII
TEACHERS' REACTIONS TO SUBJECTS

<i>Disliked</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>Well-Liked</i>
4	9	11

N = 24

ATTITUDES OF PEERS

On the basis of sociometric studies, classroom observation by field workers, interviews with teachers and students, and the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Scales, it was found that, of the 28 subjects, three were popular with their classmates; nineteen were accepted; and six were rejected by their classmates and by other children. There was a positive correlation between rejection by classmates and the Rorschach findings of neurotic patterns.

TABLE IX
ATTITUDES OF PEERS

	<i>Rejected</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>Popular</i>
N = 28	6	19	3

SUMMARY

An unexpected finding was the high evidence (in more than half of the subjects) of apparently deep-seated feelings of inadequacy and lack of confidence.

Results of the investigation indicate a need to revise the theory of isolation as a necessary function of high intelligence. Of the 28 subjects studied, six were comfortably adjusted by psychiatric judgment; three were popular with their peers in unsegregated schools; two gave Rorschach responses indicating a high degree of spontaneity, creativity, freedom of association, and freedom of interplay. One adolescent had been markedly gregarious from early childhood. While the early childhood play of three quarters of the subjects was nearly always solitary, the significance of this finding was minimized by a number of factors, such as the pattern of New York urban living. Social contacts tended to increase as the children became older.

While fifteen indicated personal feelings of isolation or rejection, in only six cases was this feeling borne out by the objective judgment of peers, teachers, and other observers.

It may be concluded that:

1. High intelligence in and of itself is not a sufficient cause for subjective or objective isolation, although it may be one contributing factor.
2. Further research is needed into the discrepancy between isolation as felt by the subject in defining his own role; and the

opinions held of him by his peers. With the exception of strongly neurotic or schizoid subjects, classmates appeared ready to include these superdeviates in their activities.

3. It may be that the isolation previously considered to be a characteristic of highly gifted children is not a necessary component of their intellectual level; but rather is due to factors in the dynamics of roles played in the family and the school. Since so little research has been done in this field, and since the present study indicated a consistent pattern of pressure, there appears to be a need for further investigation to determine whether the pattern of isolation is an evidence of difficulties associated with but not necessarily a part of high intelligence.

At the time of this study New York City had not had a complete program of individual testing of all school children, so this is to be considered as an exploratory study, with no claim to being a random sample.⁶ Since many of the subjects were found through clinics or counseling centers, there is perhaps a tendency for the sample to be weighted with subjects who had emotional problems.

Terman⁷ found among the 81 highly gifted children whom he originally studied in 1922-23 a minimum of problems in the field of personality and mental health. Since his findings were based largely on the subjective judgments of parents, medical examiners, and teachers; and since it is possible that the marked discrepancy in findings could to some extent be attributed to class and ethnic differences between the two samples, a study of a group of comparable subjects in California is indicated.

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⁶ Louttit, C. M., *Clinical Psychology of Children's Behavior Problems*, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1947, p. 307.

⁷ Terman, L. M., and Oden, *The Gifted Child Grows Up*, Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1947, Chap. XXI, p. 282 ff.

DEMOCRACY IN THE SUPERVISION OF A HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

I. David Satlow

The department head at a modern high school has an unusual opportunity to practice democracy in the administration of his department. Merely being possessed of good intentions, however, will not provide him with the wherewithal for the practice of democracy. What is required is an understanding of the basic tenets of democracy.

The term, *democratic supervision*, is somewhat of an anomaly, since "democratic" stems from the Greek word, *demos*, which means the people, and "supervision" stems from the Latin words, *super* and *video*, which mean looking from above, or overseeing. "Democratic supervision" would therefore mean "overseeing—with the consent of the governed."

We should recognize at once that paucity of language confronts us with a semantic problem in the use of the expression, *consent of the governed*. Once we talk about anyone being governed, we accept a superordinate-subordinate relationship, one that is definitely not in keeping with the spirit of democracy, since in its literal meaning democracy recognizes no governor-governee relationship. Democracy rather presupposes that the decisions stem from the people. Translated in terms of the functioning of a high-school department, it would mean that *decisions stem from the staff members*.

Teacher participation may be the tool of an autocratic supervisor who abuses the authority of his position in order to have some of his work done by the teachers. *Being asked to do part of the work is not an index of democracy; sharing in decisions approaches it*. Sharing in policy making rather than assisting in carrying out some details is the heart of democracy.

On the other hand, while conformity in and of itself is hardly an index of democracy, conformity to a group decision once the various points of view have been considered and a group decision has been arrived at is basic to democracy.

In brief then we might state that democracy in the functioning of the high-school department is a *modus vivendi*, whereby the teachers arrive at decisions on matters affecting departmental policy and share in the carrying out of the decisions.

What then becomes of the role of the department head? He is in effect the middle man in the two-way communication that is operative between the administration and the department. He presents the department's point of view to the school administration and the administration's point of view to the department. He considers departmental decisions as mandates for activity on his part

and sees to it that the decisions are implemented by the teachers in the classroom.

Several typical problems that arise in a high school department will now be treated for the purpose of showing varied practices, ranging from outright authoritarianism through teacher-participation to democracy. The first problem concerns itself with the selection of textbooks:

Case A: The supervisor selects the textbooks that are to be used.

Case B: The supervisor designates a grade chairman who is to select the textbook that is to be purchased for the grade.

Case C: The supervisor invites the teachers of the grade to submit recommendations as to the textbook to be used.

Case D: The teachers of the grade inspect the various books that are available, discuss the merits and limitations of each, decide which book is to be tried, then after a try-out period come to a decision as to further action.

The first three practices are lacking in democracy, since decisions as to the textbook to be used are made by the department head, not by the teachers. Case A makes no pretense at democracy. Case B delegates authority to one person and substitutes the judgment of the grade chairman for that of the department chairman. Case C provides for a semblance of teacher participation, but is lacking in decision-making by the staff. Case D is clearly an attempt to have democracy function.

What then is the role of the supervisor? He is the expeditor. He sees that sample copies of the various text books are made available to the staff, that the various criteria for a textbook in the given situation are accorded recognition in the group's deliberations, and that no one teacher abuses his position by foisting his view on the others. The supervisor then conveys the wishes of the department to the administration, whose role is that of effecting a harmonious balance among the demands of the various departments.

The consideration of the problem of textbook selection cannot be complete without asking one question: Suppose the teachers decide that they do not wish to have any textbook, are they to be ordered to select one? Decidedly not. Whatever decision they arrive at should be respected, but they should be aware of the implication of their vote. The teachers may wish to devise their own materials. This means that the department head is to: (a) educate them as to the significance of their decisions and (b) expedite the implementation of their decisions.

The supervisor is to arrange with the administration for a greater appropriation on supplies, to permit the duplication of materials by way of compensation for sparing the school the cost of textbooks and at the same time meeting the need for instructional materials. Or else, the department head should extract a quid pro quo promise from the administration whereby the department would obtain a greater textbook appropriation the following year in return for requesting a reduced appropriation this year.

Another common problem is that of writing the mid-term examinations. This will be dealt with in the following four cases:

Case E: The supervisor writes the mid-term examination, and no one sees it until the day of the examination.

Case F: The supervisor designates one of the teachers to write the examination, the teacher being pledged to secrecy as to the nature and scope of the paper.

Case G: The supervisor selects the two or three teachers who are to submit the question paper which he may accept, reject or modify.

Case H: Teachers select from their number those who are to write the paper. These people meet, agree on specifications, draw up a paper which they show to everyone teaching their grade, revise it in the light of the various criticisms that were made, and re-submit to the teachers of the grade for final approval.

Case H is illustrative of the workings of democracy. Case E is outright authoritarianism, Case F is modified authoritarianism, where the work is delegated. Case G is teacher-participation, but not democracy.

The very form of a departmental notice will often reveal whether or not democracy is at work. The following two versions speak for themselves:

Case I: "Will you please act as chairman of the committee that is to prepare the mid-term examination in? The other members of your committee are:"

"The examination should cover the following topics:"

Case J: "According to the decisions at our recent departmental conference, the following constitute the examination committee of the respective grades:

"Will the first-named in each group please assume the initiative by calling a meeting of his group for the purpose of: (a) selecting a permanent chairman, (b) agreeing on the scope and content of the examination, and (c) agreeing as to details of committee operations."

The first has all the arbitrariness that is characteristic of a dictator; the second, the respect for and confidence in the individual that characterize democracy.

In the very matter of teaching methodology, one can easily recognize whether democracy is at work. When the method is imposed from above, dictatorship is in full sway; when the teachers decide which method is to be used, democracy has taken root.

What then is the role of the supervisor? That of education. He is to educate the department members in the ways of democracy. This concept includes a respect for the minority point of view. If there are many teaching methods and each is educationally justified, no one method should be prescribed by majority vote: the dictatorship of the majority can be as destructive of initiative as the dictatorship of the individual at the head. In those spheres, however, where uniformity of treatment throughout the department is desirable, and where different treatments will contribute to confusion in a subsequent grade, uniformity by majority vote would not be an abuse of democracy.

Democracy is a philosophy, a way of life that permeates every departmental activity. One cannot practice democracy in one phase of departmental administration and be dictatorial in other phases. Nor can one be democratic on a Monday and authoritarian the remaining days of the week.

Education in the ways of democracy is needed. This applies to both the department head and the teachers. The department head is to learn how to sense the consensus of the group, how to elicit group attitudes and group values. He is to develop the ability to submerge his own views to those of the group. Teachers are to learn the value of arriving at their own decisions and to abandon the point of view that prefers to have the supervisor make the decisions for them.

The re-education that is called for is by no means simple. The effort entailed, however, is very much worth while, for it results in a freer atmosphere for everyone concerned, in an emotional climate that is conducive to a greater degree of happiness to both teachers and department head.

In addition to the ethical values to be derived, the feeling that comes from working in an atmosphere of freedom in an age that is characterized by a considerable amount of stress, and the experiencing of joy in one's work, particularly when one is engaged in a field that has its full share of emotional strain, are sufficiently practical incentives for the practice of democratic supervision.

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THE AUTHORITARIANISM DIMENSION IN STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF FACULTY¹

Ann C. Maney

The student-teacher relationship frequently has been an object of research for educators, sociologists, and psychologists. Attempts have been undertaken recently to measure students' perceptions of certain aspects of this relationship in a rash of faculty evaluation studies on college campuses.² Presumably, the results of such evaluations are fed back to the teachers involved, and so represent a potential influence on their future classroom conduct. Yet this is done with little, if any, assessment of the value predispositions of the students who are judging or of the teachers who are being judged.

The classroom has long been the focus of controversy over the relative merits of an autocratic as opposed to a democratic system. The concern of educators over efficiency of the learning process in an emotionally healthy atmosphere has led to the development of two schools of thought, advocates of general types of classroom interaction that are set by teachers conforming to diametrically opposed sets of beliefs.³ The ideal varies from the "traditional" polar type, in which an autocratic teacher maintains a dominant and aloof position in relation to his pupils, to the "democratic" polar type, in which an equalitarian teacher attempts to associate with his pupils as a companion and helper.⁴ With both ideologies current in educational circles, classroom instructors may be acting on the basis of either set of belief systems, while their students may be reacting on the basis of either. If one accepts as a premise the major postulate of *The Authoritarian Personality* study, namely, ". . . that the political, economic and social convictions of an individual form a broad and coherent pattern . . . and that this pattern is an expression of deeplying trends of his personality,"⁵ then the authoritarianism dimension of personality becomes relevant to expectations that prevail in the

¹ I am indebted to Professors John Thibaut and Daniel Price for aid with research design and analysis, and to Mr. Berton Kaplan for checking statistical computations.

² John Riley and Bruce Ryan, *A Student Looks at His Teacher* (New York: Dryden Press, 1953); and Woman's College of the University of North Carolina, *The Student Reaction Survey* (Unpublished study, 1953).

³ W. B. Brookover, "The Social Roles of Teachers and Pupil Achievement," *American Sociological Review*, VIII (August 1943), 389-393.

⁴ Cf. Willard Waller, "The Teacher's Roles," in J. S. Roucek, *Sociological Foundations of Education* (New York: Crowell, 1942), pp. 204-222, who advocates the efficiency of the traditional role, and Finney and Zelaney, in Brookover, *op. cit.*, p. 389, who advocate the efficiency of the democratic role.

⁵ T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswick, and R. H. Sanford (New York: Harpers, 1950), p. 1.

classroom, site of educational ideologies that also vary from "authoritarian" to "democratic," and thus relevant to evaluations of the teaching process. This paper is concerned with the extent to which authoritarian personality predispositions of the faculty stimulus person, as well as of the student raters, enter into the ratings obtained in faculty evaluation studies.

HYPOTHESES

Despite differences in the universes involved, the conclusions suggested by an experimental study of the role of the enlisted man's personality in the formation of first impressions of military leaders appear particularly relevant to student evaluations of faculty: to wit, authoritarians prefer autocratic leadership while non-authoritarians prefer democratic leadership; and authoritarians tend to be more positively evaluative of a leader than non-authoritarians, regardless of the leader's specific characteristics.⁶ The following hypotheses were derived for testing with respect to the student-teacher relationship.

(1) *The greater the amount of authoritarianism in a student's personality makeup, the more favorable will be his evaluation of a teacher, regardless of the teacher's specific characteristics.* (2) *As the amount of authoritarianism in the personality makeup of a student increases, the favorableness of his evaluation of a teacher will vary directly with the degree of authoritarianism in the teacher's personality makeup, and conversely, as the amount of authoritarianism in the personality makeup of a student decreases, the favorableness of his evaluation of a teacher will vary inversely with the degree of authoritarianism in the teacher's personality makeup.*

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The study population was composed of student-majors and faculty members from a single department at a large southern woman's college. Both student and faculty groups contained only women. Of the 189 student-majors enrolled under all of the department's faculty members, 84% or 157 returned their questionnaires, thereby comprising the population from which was drawn a sample of 96, selected on the basis of the teachers they had rated and their place in the range of authoritarianism scores. Of ten faculty subjects, the eight were included for whom independent ratings were available from four students, who were randomly selected from within each of the extreme categories, and the most central category of authori-

⁶ E. E. Jones, "Authoritarianism as a Determinant of First Impression Formation," *Journal of Personality*, XXIII (1955), 107-127.

tarianism. In this way, it was possible to control the influence of the size of a teacher's class, i.e. variation in number of ratings received, and control the variation in number of ratings obtained from each student, at the same time ensuring independence of the evaluation scores used to test the hypotheses.

Authoritarianism in personality makeup of students and faculty was measured by the 30 item California F Scale.⁷ This authoritarianism scale was designed to reveal trends, relatively deep within the personality, which constitute a disposition to express or be influenced by autocratic ideas. These trends involve strict observance of middle class values; extremely idealized conception of the moral authorities of the ingroup, and a submissive, uncritical relation to them; a tendency to watch for, reject, condemn and punish those who violate conventional values; opposition to insight into one's own behavior as well as that of others; a tendency to think in terms of rigid categories and of mystical determinants of individual fate; preoccupation with dominance-submission relationships that includes exaggerated assertions of strength and identification with power figures; destructiveness and cynicism; projectivity; and extreme concern with matters related to sex.

Student evaluations of faculty were assessed with a scale developed in a Student Reaction Survey carried out at the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina,⁸ a modification of an evaluation scale previously used at Rutgers. The score represents the sum of the student's overall evaluation of the teacher on items such as encouragement to thinking, attitude to students, tolerance to disagreement, classroom mannerisms and appearance, organization of subject matter, knowledge of subject, attitude toward subject, speaking ability, ability to explain, and qualities as tester. Authoritarianism and evaluation measures were obtained from the subjects by questionnaire.

RESULTS

Before testing any of the relationships hypothesized among the theoretical variables,—authoritarianism in student's personality makeup, student's evaluation of teacher, and authoritarianism in teacher's personality makeup, it is necessary to ascertain the independence of the "F" scores of students and teachers, so that there is some assurance of lack of systematic selection in the attraction of students to the classes of teachers of similar authoritarian dispositions. Since the F ratio obtained from the mean square variances indicates that

⁷ Forms 40 and 45 in Adorno and others, *op. cit.*

⁸ Part III, "Rating Instructional Qualifications."

there is no significant association between the degree of authoritarianism of a student's personality and the degree of authoritarianism in the personality of the teacher whom she is rating, we shall proceed

TABLE I. Degree of Student's Authoritarianism by Classification of Teacher's Authoritarianism

<i>Teacher's Authoritarianism</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>Mean of Students' "F" Scores*</i>
Q_4	.705	2.50
Q_3	.642	2.63
Q_2	.676	2.68
Q_1	.938	2.64

$$P[F_{3,92} = 1.74] > .05$$

with the assumption that such an association is not affecting the other relationships in which we are interested.

The null hypothesis that there is no association between degree of authoritarianism in a student's personality makeup and degree of favorableness of the student's evaluation of a teacher, when the specific characteristics of the teacher are ignored, could not be rejected on the basis of a Pearsonian r of .00. In addition, an analysis of covariance was carried out on the relationship between student's authoritarianism and student's evaluation of teacher, classified by the degree of authoritarianism in the personality of the teacher being rated. This yielded a within class correlation of .02, so that it may be concluded that the relationship between student's authoritarianism and student's evaluation of teacher was not being obscured by differences in authoritarianism among the teachers being evaluated. However, the association between the authoritarianism of a student and his evaluation of a teacher does increase somewhat when considered within each class of authoritarianism characteristic of the teachers being rated, although it is not significant. Thus, although there does

TABLE II. Individual Class Regressions of Student Evaluations on Student Authoritarianism

<i>Class of Faculty Authoritarianism</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>P [F]</i>
Q_4	24	.0875	$P[F_{1,22} = .17] > .05$
Q_3	24	-.1382	$P[F_{1,22} = .42] > .05$
Q_2	24	-.2522	$P[F_{1,22} = 1.49] > .05$
Q_1	24	.1376	$P[F_{1,22} = .42] > .05$

* Authoritarianism scores range from a low of 0.00 to a high of 5.00. A high score represents authoritarianism.

not appear to be any overall association between student authoritarianism and student evaluations of teachers, when the degree of authoritarianism of the teacher being evaluated is taken into account, there appears a slight tendency for the favorableness of student evaluation of moderately authoritarian teachers to increase with the increasing degree of authoritarianism characteristic of the student, while the favorableness of student evaluations of the most authoritarian and of the most democratic teachers tends to decrease with the increasing degree of authoritarianism characteristic of the student, though these relationships could be the result of chance variations.

There is a suggestion, in these findings, that the authoritarianism dimension of personality in the faculty-stimulus person might be an important factor in the favorableness of evaluations made by students. An analysis of variance was performed on the evaluation scores classified by degree of authoritarianism of the teacher being rated. This yielded an F ratio of 4.06 (for 3 and 92 df), which

TABLE III. Degree of Student's Authoritarianism and Evaluation Scores, by Classification of Teacher's Authoritarianism*

<i>Class of Faculty Authoritarianism</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean of Students' "F" Scores</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>Mean of Eval- uation Scores</i>	<i>S.D.</i>
Q_4	24	2.50	.705	1.54	.365
Q_3	24	2.63	.642	1.57	.334
Q_2	24	2.68	.676	1.76	.516
Q_1	24	2.64	.938	1.93	.490

indicated that the evaluation scores, grouped by category of authoritarianism of the teacher being evaluated, are significantly different beyond the .01 level. Thus, evaluations decreased in favorableness with the increasing authoritarianism of the teacher being rated. An analysis of covariance yielded an F ratio of 4.03 (3 and 91 df) which indicated that there is a relationship, significant beyond the .01 level, between degree of authoritarianism of a teacher and evaluation by students, even when differences in the authoritarianism of the students are taken into account.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The hypotheses, derived from prior experimental studies concerning the role of the authoritarianism personality dimension in

* Authoritarianism scores range from a low of 0.00 to a high of 5.00. A high score represents authoritarianism. Evaluation scores range from a low of 4.00 to a high of 1.00. A high score represents a favorable evaluation.

evaluations of authority figures, did not hold in this population of women students, who were evaluating their teachers. It was found that, contrary to expectations, the degree of authoritarianism of the faculty person being rated is significantly associated with favorableness of evaluation, whereas degree of authoritarianism of the student doing the rating is not significantly associated with favorableness of evaluation. Although the first part of these findings is not too surprising in view of the key role played by a teacher in the classroom, it is interesting to note that the most authoritarian teachers receive the most unfavorable ratings. This suggests that, regardless of their own beliefs, students in this population tend to reject teachers, whose personality makeup is such that they are disposed to express or act on the basis of autocratic ideas, as well as to uncritically support the ingroup authorities and to relate in status rather than personal terms.

The lack of association between authoritarianism in the student and her evaluation of a teacher suggests that there might be certain needs built into the student status which overrule any beliefs arising from authoritarian personality needs which might influence judgments of teachers, and that personality characteristics of a teacher are so intertwined with behavior that student evaluations accurately assess performance, which decreases in quality with increasing amounts of authoritarianism in the personality. Any such conclusions are speculative in nature, however, and require further investigation for verification.

There is a statistically unsupported tendency in the data for the direction of the association between student authoritarianism and student evaluations to change with the degree of moderation evident in the teacher's expression of authoritarianism. This raises some question about the ambiguity of the F Scale as a measure of authoritarianism, and its failure to differentiate between personality and ideological dimensions,⁹ so that the study findings are reported with some reservation about the theoretical meanings of the associations found with the F Scale measure of authoritarianism.

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⁹ Cf. E. A. Shils, "Authoritarianism: 'Right' and 'Left,'" in R. Christie and Marie Jahoda (Eds.) *Studies in the Scope and Method of "The Authoritarian Personality"* (Glencoe: Free Press, 1953).

INFLUENCE OF A FUNCTIONAL MARRIAGE COURSE ON ATTITUDES TOWARD FAMILISM*

Panos D. Bardis

Introduction. In his book entitled *Family and Civilization* Carle C. Zimmerman¹ asserts that, due to the extreme atomism resulting from the movements of individualism, statism, and evolutionary progressivism, the United States "will reach the final phases of a great family crisis between now and the last of this century. . . . This crisis will be identical in nature to the two previous crises in Greece and Rome." Unfortunately, Zimmerman laments, family sociologists, from Ogburn to Goodsell,² are doing nothing to prevent this crisis, since practically all of them "are of the Plutarchian type. They defame the old heroes of our western society by picking out the real or alleged worst sides of their lives and presenting these as the entire picture. They constantly criticize, either directly or by implication, our earlier systems of accepted moral behavior."³ Furthermore, "there is greater disparity between the actual, documented, historical truth and the theories taught in the family sociology courses, than exists in any other scientific field."⁴ It is no wonder, therefore, that "anyone who even suggests that the preservation of the familistic system is desirable is simply considered out of his head by the modern Plutarchs."⁵

The Problem: In the present study an effort has been made to secure new information concerning the problem to which Zimmerman refers when he asserts that "we have the intelligence, and powerful enough educational . . . agencies, to bring about a revision and the more or less permanent reinstatement of familism."⁶ Of course, pedagogically, a suggestion of this type seems closer to the theories of educational reformers like Plato, Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, and Jean Jacques Rousseau, who conceived of the school as a utopian microcosm to be imitated by the macrocosm of society, than to the

* Paper given at the meeting of the Ohio Valley Sociological Society. Cincinnati, 1958.

¹ New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947, pp. 578, 798.

² *Ibid.*, p. 56 *et passim*.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 786.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 810.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 807.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 809.

educational sociology of Emile Durkheim⁷ and other sociologists, who have stressed the school's role in socializing the younger generation. Here, however, we will not attempt to evaluate Zimmerman's pedagogical ideas or his controversial thesis dealing with the evolution of the family. Instead, our study will be confined to the examination of the following hypothesis: "Functional marriage courses offered in American colleges and universities do not result in increased familism on the part of the students." This hypothesis was based on the belief that family sociologists, being neither educational reformers nor devout believers in familism, are not attempting to convert our atomistic society into a familistic one by influencing the younger generation in the manner suggested by Zimmerman.

Methodology: Unfortunately, Zimmerman himself nowhere specifically defines familism, while Fairchild's *Dictionary of Sociology* does not even include it, although this is a fairly old⁸ term. One of the best definitions, if not the best one, is given by Burgess and Locke, according to whom, ideal-typical familism refers to strong in-group feelings, emphasis on family goals, common property, mutual support, and the desire to pursue the perpetuation of the family.⁹

Partly on the basis of this definition, the writer has constructed a scale by means of which familism may be measured rather objectively. Since this technique is described elsewhere,¹⁰ here only a brief description of its construction will be presented. First of all, after pretesting 150 statements dealing with familism, a list of 13 of these items—those likeliest to withstand the final rigorous statistical tests—was mailed to ten authors¹¹ of books in family sociology, together with a letter requesting that they attempt to improve the list by omitting or modifying any of these statements, as well as by adding new ones if necessary. As a result of this request, some of the 13 statements were slightly modified, while 4 new ones were added to the list. For the final test of the items, Likert's¹² scaling technique was followed in all respects, except for a step pertaining

⁷ *Education and Sociology*, Glencoe: The Free Press, 1956.

⁸ See, for instance, Daniel H. Kulp, *Country Life in South China*, New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1925, pp. 187-88.

⁹ Ernest W. Burgess and Harvey J. Locke, *The Family*, second edition, New York: American Book Company, 1953, p. 60.

¹⁰ Panos D. Bardis, "A Familism Scale" (a still incomplete manuscript).

¹¹ Drs. Robert Blood, Ernest Burgess, Ruth Cavan, Harold Christensen, Evelyn and Sylvanus Duvall, Reuben Hill, Judson and Paul Landis, and Meyer Nimkoff.

¹² Rensis Likert, *A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes*, New York: Archives of Psychology, 1932, No. 140, especially pp. 11-13 and 44-53.

to the criterion of internal consistency. In other words, instead of merely obtaining the difference between each item's high and low means, as Likert has done,¹³ a t-test was employed for each pair of such averages, with the purpose of retaining only those statements represented by means differing significantly at least at the .01 level.¹⁴ In this way, the final familism scale consisted of 16 items,¹⁵ which were preceded by the following instructions: "Below is a list of issues concerning the family *in general, not your own*. Please read *all* statements very *carefully* and respond to *all* of them on the basis of *your own true* beliefs *without* consulting any other persons. Do this by reading each statement and then underlining *only one* of the 5 responses ('strongly agree,' 'agree,' etc.) which represents your feelings. *Disregard* the numbers following these responses." Each item on the scale was followed by the potential responses "strongly agree," "agree," "undecided," "disagree," and "strongly disagree," always in that order. Since, however, in accordance with Likert's suggestion, some of the scale items were stated antifamilistically, the numerical values corresponding to the five verbal responses were either 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 (antifamilistic items) or 4, 3, 2, 1, 0 (familistic items). In this way, theoretically, responses to each item ranged between 0 and 4, while total scores ranged between 0 and 64, a subject's familism score consisting of the sum of his 16 responses. Consequently, the higher a respondent's score, the more familistic he was.

One of the scale's validity tests consisted in comparing the mean familism score (22.23) of 30 Methodist students with that of 30 Mennonites¹⁶ (31.47). The *t* for this comparison was 6.29 and, therefore, significant at a much lower than the .01 level, with 58 degrees of freedom. On the other hand, two of the reliability tests gave a test-retest reliability coefficient of .904 and an odd-even-comparison raw coefficient of .72, which, after it was corrected by means of the Spearman-Brown formula,¹⁷ resulted in a corrected coefficient of .84. The split-half technique applied to 34 cases selected

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 53.

¹⁴ The writer is grateful to Dr. Likert for his kindness to encourage the completion of this experiment by displaying interest in the results.

¹⁵ These are given in the section dealing with the findings of the present study.

¹⁶ Concerning the somewhat familistic values of Mennonites, see E. K. Francis, *In Search of Utopia*, Altona, Manitoba: D. W. Friesen and Sons, 1955, pp. 271-77 *et passim*; and J. Howard Kauffman, "Tradition and Change in Mennonite Family Life" (mimeographed).

¹⁷ See Likert, *op. cit.*, pp. 28-31.

at random from the subjects of the present study gave a raw coefficient of .68 and a corrected one of .81.

To measure the influence of family life education on attitudes toward familism, copies of the scale were distributed among the students taking the writer's three-hour marriage course in the fall semester of 1957-58, both at the first and the last class meetings. The main features of this course, which is taught every semester, and which, as a recent study¹⁸ by the Hamline University Department of Sociology indicates, seems fairly typical, are as follows:

1. The size of the class has so far ranged between 40 and 100 men and women, who are never separated for instruction. Usually, there are a few more women than men.

2. Assignments are very flexible, main emphasis being placed on stimulating the students to read not only the entire textbook, which is required, but also several other publications in family sociology. This is achieved primarily by presenting to the class brief discussions and evaluations of many of the latest books and articles dealing with the family. Examination papers, classroom discussions, and private conversations with individual students indicate that this goal is realized to a considerable extent. Equally democratic is the policy concerning term papers. In other words, such work is done only by interested students and only under the instructor's individualized guidance.

3. The teacher's lectures are accompanied by informal discussions in which all students are encouraged to participate. Surprisingly, such discussions are spontaneous and lively even when the class is large.

4. So far our textbook has been Harold T. Christensen's *Marriage Analysis*.

5. Items pertaining to the institutional school of family sociology are very seldom presented. For instance, an item of this type, given during the semester under consideration, was a brief analysis of Hesiod's *Katalogoi Gynaikon E Oiai*, with main emphasis on its *Mutterrecht* implications.

6. Both of G. McHugh's "Sex Knowledge Inventories" Forms X and Y—are analyzed and discussed extensively, this process usually taking about two weeks or six class hours.

7. Every student is asked to supply an unsigned statement dealing with what he or she considers the most serious criticism of the

¹⁸ A. O. Haller and William Olsen, "Courses in Preparation for Marriage in 113 Colleges and Universities," *The Delton* (Winter, 1956), pp. 37-40.

opposite sex on the campus. These statements are read and interpreted by the instructor in the classroom, the students being encouraged to participate in free discussions pertaining to such criticisms. Discussions of this type are usually quite emotional and seem to result in a relatively high degree of catharsis and mutual understanding between the sexes.

8. Occasionally, guest speakers are invited to lecture on various subjects dealing with the family.

9. Each semester two different movies on some aspect of family life are presented together with a discussion of their themes. For the semester under consideration, the movies selected were "It Takes All Kinds" and "Are You Ready for Marriage?"

10. Informal counseling is offered to those who come with various problems. Such problems usually pertain to dating.

11. Finally, since "*repetitio est mater studiorum*," each of the four one-hour tests given during the semester is based on everything covered between the first class meeting and the time of that particular test.

During the semester with which the present study deals, the class consisted of 14 males and 30 females, all of them being white native Americans. Of these, eleven were 18 years old, eighteen were 19, seven were 20, five were 21, two were 22, and one was 23. Most students, namely, 42, were single, while 1 was engaged and 1 married. Eight were seniors, 6 were juniors, 29 were sophomores, and 1 was a freshman. One subject was Roman Catholic, 42 were Protestant (of these, 15 were Methodist), and 1 was nonaffiliated. Furthermore, 5 came from villages or towns, 37 from nonmetropolitan cities, and 1 from a metropolitan city, while the remaining 1 failed to indicate the size of his home town. Finally, the occupations of the subjects' fathers were distributed¹⁹ as follows: professional persons, 9; proprietors, managers, and officials, 16; clerks and kindred workers, 13; skilled workers and foremen, 3; semiskilled workers, 2; and unskilled workers, 1.

Findings and Interpretation: The means of the pre-test and post-test familism scores for each scale item (theoretical range, 0-4) were as follows—in each case, the pre-test mean is given first: a person should always support his uncles or aunts if they are in need, 1.75 and 1.52; children below 18 should give almost all their earnings

¹⁹ For this classification, see Alba M. Edwards, *Comparative Occupational Statistics for the United States, 1870-1940*, Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1943, pp. 181-86.

to their parents, .68 and .84; the family should *not* consult close relatives (uncles, aunts, first cousins) concerning its important decisions, 1.09 and 1.39; children below 18 should almost always obey their older brothers and sisters, 1.27 and 1.39; a person should always consider the needs of his family as a whole more important than his own, 3.14 and 2.89; at least one married child should be expected to live in the parental home, .23 and .27; a person should always be expected to defend his family against outsiders even at the expense of his own personal safety, 2.80 and 2.64; the family should *not* have the right to control the behavior of each of its members completely, .89 and .91; a person should always support his parents-in-law if they are in need, 2.11 and 2.20; a person should always avoid every action of which his family disapproves, 1.39 and 1.52; a person should always share his home with his uncles, aunts or first cousins if they are in need, 1.41 and 1.43; a person should always be completely loyal to his family, 2.82 and 2.82; the members of a family should *not* be expected to hold the same political, ethical, and religious beliefs, .95 and 1.11; children below 18 should always obey their parents, 2.64 and 2.59; a person should always help his parents with the support of his younger brothers and sisters if necessary, 2.75 and 2.66; a person should always share his home with his parents-in-law if they are in need, 1.89 and 2.02.

The means of the total familism scores (theoretical range, 0-64) revealed that these minor fluctuations were highly insignificant. Indeed, a comparison of the pre-test mean (27.81) with that given by the post-test (28.20) resulted in a *t* as low as .27, which, with 86 degrees of freedom, was insignificant even above the .50 level. Similar results were obtained when knowledge of the material dealt with in the course was compared with the post-test familism scores. This was done by correlating these scores with the grades (theoretical range, 0-100) of the final examination, which was based on everything covered by the course during the entire semester. The coefficient of correlation thus obtained was only —.04. In other words, unlike other similar studies,²⁰ which reveal very few but statistically significant gains in "general life adjustment," the present project, dealing only with familism, seems to support Zimmerman's belief that family sociologists refuse to play the rôle of familistic

²⁰ See, for instance, Duncan V. Gillies and Carlo L. Lastrucci, "Validation of the Effectiveness of a College Marriage Course," *Marriage and Family Living*, 16 (February, 1954), pp. 55-58.

reformers. In fact, educators in general appear to be unwilling to promote familism, since, when the post-test familism scores were correlated with the subjects' years of education, the resulting coefficient was .003.

Changes within each sex group also proved highly insignificant. The pre-test mean of the males, for instance, was 26.79, while their post-test mean was 28.97. The difference between these values gave a t of .74, which, with 26 degrees of freedom, was insignificant almost at the .50 level. Similarly, the pre-test mean of the females (28.27) and their post-test mean (27.84) resulted in a t of .27, which, with 58 degrees of freedom, was insignificant much above the .50 level.

When the pre-test mean of the males (26.79) was compared with that of the females (28.27), the F -test gave a value of 3.46, which, with 13 and 29 degrees of freedom, was significant below the .01 level. Instead of the t -test, therefore, the t' was employed. The value of the latter was .61, while the t' .50 (Cochran-Cox approximation²¹) was .69, thus indicating insignificance even above the .50 level. Similarly, the post-test mean of the males (28.97) and that of the females (27.84) gave an F of 1.02, which, with 29 and 13 degrees of freedom, was insignificant at a much higher than the .05 level, thus permitting a comparison by means of the t -test. The latter was only .50 and, therefore, with 42 degrees of freedom, insignificant even above the .50 level. In other words, if the subjects of the present study were fairly typical, we may conclude that, as a result of the emancipation of women, the influence of mass media of communication, and the increasing similarity of the experiences to which both males and females are subjected in our atomistic society, both sexes are about equally nonfamilistic.

The uniformity characterizing the two sexes seemed to be also typical of the six occupational levels to which the subjects' fathers belonged. Indeed, after assigning a value of 5 to professional persons, 4 to proprietors, managers, and officials, 3 to clerks and kindred workers, 2 to skilled workers and foremen, 1 to semiskilled workers, and 0 to unskilled workers, and after correlating these values with the post-test familism scores, the resulting coefficient was —.04. This finding may mean that the similarity in experiences cited above is also characteristic of the various occupational levels, thus generating relative uniformity concerning attitudes toward familism among these groups. When age and post-test familism scores were correlated,

²¹ Concerning the t' and the Cochran-Cox approximation, see Allen L. Edwards, *Experimental Design in Psychological Research*, New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1950, pp. 162-70.

however, a substantial correlation (.52) was obtained, which, with 42 degrees of freedom, was significant below the .01 level. Perhaps this means that social conditions have been changing so rapidly that even persons differing only slightly in age have been subjected to significantly different influences. Or, and this seems more probable, it may mean that older persons have gradually settled down and thus tend to be more family-minded than younger ones. Since, however, this particular topic did not constitute the main subject of the present study, the relevant information secured is rather limited and the evidence supplied here with reference to this matter cannot be considered conclusive.

Summary and Conclusions: The present study has indicated that Zimmerman's assertion that family sociologists are not functioning as familistic reformers seems justified. More specifically, the following conclusions have been drawn: (1) A fairly typical marriage course given at the college level did not affect the students' attitudes toward familism. (2) Familism scores and grades made in the final examination were completely unrelated. (3) Familism scores and amount of education were also unrelated. (4) The post-test familism scores of both sexes did not differ significantly from the corresponding pre-test values. (5) Both the pretest and post-test means failed to reveal any significant difference between males and females in the area of familism. (6) There was no relationship between student familism scores and paternal occupational levels. (7) Higher age groups were characterized by substantially higher familism scores. (8) Finally, since the subjects' familism scores were fairly low and remained such even at the end of the semester, further research is necessary in order to answer these questions: (a) Are family sociologists really opposed to familism? (b) If no, are they actually failing to promote what they consider desirable? And (c) If yes, to what extent is their antifamilistic position based on empirical justifications and a *posteriori* reasoning?

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BOOK REVIEWS

The Politics of Despair by Hadley Cantril. New York: Basic Books, 1958 pp. 260-XV.

This book deserves a very wide reading. There is scarcely a segment of public leadership in America but that has an equity in the problem with which it deals: namely why do so many people in Italy and France vote communistic in the way they have since the war.

Professor Cantril combined the public opinion poll techniques with depth interviews conducted by persons whose language was native to the group studied, and whose interviews attempted to pierce the "perception curtains" to reveal the world of reality as seen by the person interviewed.

A major methodological problem encountered was the lack of precise meaning of the common word "faith" in the psychological literature. A whole chapter is devoted to the ingredients required for a faith. This analysis is not the least of the contributions of the study.

Beyond these methodological problems, however, is the larger one of why people voted communist. One of the singular findings was that most persons become involved in communism, not because of ideological commitments, but because for the first time, for many, there was an organization or more often some person who was interested in them.

Most communist voters began their support of this political party because of involvement. The study says to political parties, the church, and those industrialists who are so anxious about the free enterprise system, "If you want to preserve our way of life, it will pay you to rely less on propaganda attacks on the ideologies of communism, and "red baiting," and be certain that the pew, market place, and the offices of public trust are genuinely concerned with people, their welfare and their interest in participating."

It says to the educator "Theories, principles and ideologies mean little until a person is caught up in real life situations in such a fashion that such rationalizations of behavior make sense to him."

The study says to all that unless there is some hope, some degree of certainty about the future that faith is gone. It tends to say that if our way of life is lost it will be because the system has fallen from within and not because there are alien ideologies loose in the world.

The book is an excellent antidote to witchhunting, brainwashing, and other anxiety driven panaceas of patriotism.

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